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ABSTRACT

THE FORUM is an occasional publication designed to disseminate ideas on educational topics and concerns of importance to public schools, colleges, universities, community agencies, and governing bodies. This issue addresses the following topics: the need for educational opportunity as a prerequisite to social equality; the controversy surrounding the assessment and use of competency-based teacher education; the question of censorship and bias in children's textbooks; the suitability of a liberally-educated teacher for a specific teaching task; and the teacher's role in establishing classroom discipline. (LH)

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The Forum is an occasional publication of the Department of Studies in Education, The University of West Florida, Pensacola, Florida 32504. The purpose of the Forum is to provide a means for dissemination of ideas on educational topics and concerns of importance to public schools, colleges, and universities, community agencies, and governance structures. Articles published in the Forum remain the property of their authors.

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

The contributions to this issue of Forum examine and discuss wide ranging educational perspectives on sociological and political issues in education; teacher preparation curricular issues; philosophical assessment of current educational reforms, i.e., competency-based education; and classroom management.

The Forum's intent to involve the community of scholars is exemplified in the educational experience of the authors. The content of the articles and the experiential backgrounds of the contributors are evidence of commitment of the Forum to afford erudite discourse and exchange of ideas on salient educational concerns.

Erskine S. Dottin
Editor

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EDITORIAL POLICY STATEMENT

The Forum is an occasional publication of the Department of Studies in Education, The University of West Florida.

The purpose of the Forum is to afford erudite discourse and exchange among university and college faculty, staff, administrators, and students, as well as public school personnel, and community members.

Articles which are facilitative of critical analysis and conceptual operationalization are solicited from participants in the Intellectual Forum and published in the Forum.

Copies of the Forum are distributed to the university and college community, other institutions of higher learning, state agencies responsible for education, and various public school organizations.

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POWER AND SCHOOLING: SOME EXPLORATORY CONSIDERATIONS

by

Mary F. Rogers

This exploratory examination aims at offering a perspective which might be fruitful in our attempts to elucidate how schooling itself--i.e., school-related factors--might contribute to the profoundly significant inequality of educational attainment among young people. Moreover, the perspective explored here is tied to more encompassing, general socio-political considerations. As a sociologist I initially became interested in the process of educational attainment through my interest in the analysis of the class structures of Western industrialized societies. Specifically, one of the most appropriate ways to characterize a class system (or any system of structured social inequality) is to examine those "...processes by which individuals become located, or locate themselves, in positions in the hierarchy comprising the system." (Blau and Duncan 1967, 163) Thus it is of fundamental relevance to query into the processes by which people both are located and locate themselves in the class structure; in Western societies today the major processes in those regards are those of educational attainment, occupational attainment, and income attainment. My immediate interest is in the first of these processes.

In general, sociologists have used two major approaches in their studies of educational attainment. The first and by far most common approach emphasizes the causal primacy of individual and interpersonal, especially familial, factors with reference to educational attainment; the other approach emphasizes the causal primacy of social-organizational (or structural) factors. The first approach utilizes a model which focuses on the relationship between socioeconomic background and measured ability, on the one hand, and educational attainment, on the other hand, as well as on the manner in which social-psychological factors such as self-perception of ability, aspirations, and expectations mediate the aforementioned relationship. The dominant model focuses, then, on how individual-based attributes of social, psychological, and cognitive nature interplay to determine educational attainment. The alternative, less utilized approach involves a focus on the manner in which structural factors such as organizational input, "climate", procedures, and the like independently affect levels of educational attainment; the focus here is on how organization-based factors themselves affect educational attainment.

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In undertaking this exploration it is the intention of this paper to show that the concept of power might be a basis for theoretically integrating the concerns of both of the major approaches to the study of educational attainment. More broadly, and in my view more importantly, I hope to lay grounds suggestive of the general manner in which the idea of power elucidates the processes by which relationships between social origins and social destinations are established. Throughout this exploration power is conceived as the ability or capacity to influence others to act in the direction of one's own preferences.[1] With respect to educational attainment the power of a student is his or her ability to influence others, including foremostly teachers, parents, and peers, to act so as to enhance the likelihood of acceptable levels of educational attainment. I am assuming here that what is "acceptable" varies a great deal among students; I am also assuming, though, that at least at early ages the overwhelming majority of students want to "succeed" in school; i.e., do not want to fail nor to stand in imminent danger of failure. Thus conceived, power seems highly relevant to the process of educational attainment. At the micro-level of analysis it is clear that students come to and progress through school significantly differentiated in terms of their abilities to positively influence attainment-relevant others, especially teachers and peers. At the macro-level of analysis it is clear also that the power given types of individuals and given groups is significantly unequal with reference to positively influencing decision-makers whose activities result in the determination of school policies, budgets, and the like. In this paper I shall focus on the micro-level relevance of power to an understanding of the process of educational attainment.

Power and Educational Attainment: Micro-Level Considerations

The literature on educational attainment indicate that 'significant others' can affect the aspirations, expectations, and attitudes which intervene between an individual's ability and social origins, on the one hand, and his or her educational attainment, on the other hand. For example, considerable support exists for the notion that through their encouragement, expectations, and/or own aspirations both parents and peers affect a youth's aspirations and expectations in the educational sphere. (Bain and Anderson 1974; Duncan, Featherman and Duncan 1972; Ellis and Lane 1963; Hauser 1972; Herriott 1963; Kerckhoff 1974; McDill and Rigsby 1973; St. John 1972; Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf 1970; TenHouten et al. 1971) Moreover, the expectations and encouragement exhibited by teachers appear to affect the aspirations and expectations of students. (Coffin, Dietz and Thompson 1971; Ellis and Lane 1963; Hauser 1972)

Attention to significant others suggests what is highly obvious--that between an individual and his or her outcomes stand a variety of people whose behavior can facilitate or impede attainment. (Sewell et al. 1969, 91)

The processes leading to given levels of attainment are in fact monitored by other people, both informally and formally. Within the individual's broad interpersonal context are significant others such as parents and peers who informally monitor the individual, serving in varying degrees to support or discourage the behavior and attitudes which positively affect his attainment. Within those institutional systems which the individual must negotiate in order to reach given levels of attainment (Knight 1974)--e.g., educational systems--are formal monitors. Their positions entitle them to make judgments which can help or hinder the individual relative to a given level of attainment. Such monitors oversee institutionalized "means-end ladders" which provide a graduated series of status goals where one goal constitutes the means to the next goal (Nagasawa 1971, 216-17). Those three basic notions--monitoring, significant others, and means-end ladder--appear relevant to an understanding of much of the educational attainment literature. Coupled with the notion of power, they provide some bases for an interpretive framework concerning the findings of attainment researchers.

To negotiate one's way through an institutionalized means-end ladder such as public schooling power is clearly relevant with reference to affecting the behavior of monitors who certify one's level of accomplishment and/or right to move on to the next step. Individuals attempting to negotiate such a system differ significantly in their capacities to positively influence monitors. Moreover this differential power tends to be perpetuated within the given system insofar as the outcomes experienced at one step generally affect one's ability to influence those monitors at the next level of the means-end ladder.

Three basic and general propositions suggest a linkage between power and educational attainment at the micro-level. First of all, significant others and monitors have power which, when activated, tends to have attainment-relevant effects. Second, significant others and monitors are themselves influenced (the power of those negotiating a system is, then, attainment-relevant). Third, through their behavior significant others and monitors tend to augment or circumscribe the power of those negotiating a given system. In the remainder of the section we shall briefly discuss each of these fundamental propositions.

Power Attainment: Micro-Level Linkages.

As we have seen, attainment research demonstrates that significant others influence the individual in ways that directly or indirectly affect his attainment. Kerckhoff's perspective on significant others--that their influence derives importantly from their abilities to sanction and to convey information (Kerckhoff 1974, 102)--suggests that significant others have power which, when activated, tends to affect attainment. That important socializing agents have resources which can be activated or invoked for the broad purposes of rewarding, punishing, and persuading those being socialized is a well-established sociological tenet. It hardly needs validation or support here. That significant others and monitors have the power to

affect the educational attainment of individuals is, though, a fact which needs to be confronted explicitly in power terms. To do otherwise is to diminish the import of what attainment data suggest regarding the determinative impact significant others such as teachers can have on attainment.

A power perspective demands attention not only to the power of significant others but also to their ability to influence. The notion that significant others are influenced parallels relatively recent trends toward viewing socialization "...as an interaction process which involves the child as an active partner, rather than as a process of unilateral manipulation of the child." (Dreitzel 1973, 6) It seems crucial that the influences of significant others and monitors be more pointedly treated as nonrandom. Such influences represent, in fact, responsive or reactive behavior based on a reciprocity of power between the individual and significant others.

Specifically, the individual's power is a major determinant of the kinds and degrees of influence which significant others and monitors direct toward him. An individual's resources are by definition a measure of his capacity to influence (attainment-relevant) others. As such, they provide an overall indicator of the quantity and quality of attention he is able to elicit from significant others. That individuals differ in their capacities to influence those who can affect their levels of attainment is implied in some of the status attainment literature. It seems only that such insights need to be discussed explicitly in terms of resources. Briefly, the unequal distribution of resources (i.e., power) tends to generate a differential distribution of reinforcement (positive and negative) and information to those negotiating a given means-end ladder. In turn, the differential distribution of sanctions and information affect individual levels of attainment with respect to that means-end ladder. The patterned (i.e., nonrandom) influences of significant others must be viewed, then, in relationship to the different amounts of power held by those negotiating a system.

The literature on educational attainment clearly suggests some specific resources which contribute to a student's ability to influence positively significant others and monitors. Significant others tend to be affected, for example, by the individual's socioeconomic status (SES). (Ellis and Lane 1963, 754; Hauser 1972, 182; Sewell, Haller and Portes 1969, 88; Wendling and Elliott 1968) Teachers may respond more favorably to higher SES students. (Hollingshead 1949, 171, 349ff.; Rist 1973, 65-6, 89; Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf 1970, 1015)[2] In addition, to the extent that absolute level of aspirations is positively associated with SES (Brodie 168, 255; Empey 1956, 706; Harrison 1969, 76-7; Holloway 1959, 59; Sewell, Haller and Strauss 1957, 71-2; Sewell 1964, 28), differential responses across SES groupings might be expected. All other things being equal, teachers might respond more affirmatively to students who exhibit higher aspirations. Thus while significant others affect aspirations, as we have already seen, it seems reasonable to suspect that level of aspirations also affects the perceptions and responses of significant others. Both directly and indirectly, then,

relatively high SES would seem a significant resource. Parenthetically, sex and race would seem important resources, too, insofar as their impact on significant others' perceptions and responses is similar to that of SES.

Ability would also seem an important resource among those negotiating academic means-end ladders. Whether measured directly in terms of IQ or inferred on the basis of academic performance, ability appears to affect significant others' responses. (Duncan, Featherman and Duncan 1972, 204; Hauser, 1972, 182; Kerckhoff 1974, 70; Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf 1970, 1020) Again, indirect effects emanating from ability and performance might be expected insofar as those factors affect the individual's aspirations and expectations (Drew and Astin 1972, 1160; Harrison 1969, 76; Kerckhoff 1974, 89; Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf 1970, 1016) and/or self-concept of ability. (Brookover 1964, 273; Herriott 1963, 167; Drew and Astin 1972, 1157; Epps 1969, 7; Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf 1970, 1016)

The attainment literature suggests that these resources and a variety of other individual-based factors coalesce in providing the individual with a given amount of power with respect to significant others. More specifically, it is important to bear in mind that the context within which individual attributes are "presented" involves formal and informal definitions as to which of those attributes are "relevant", appropriate, and/or acceptable (i.e., the context determines which traits will tend to be significant power resources). To the extent that an individual's attributes correspond (or are perceived to correspond) with those definitions, the individual has a greater capacity to influence positively those whose responses can affect his outcomes in negotiating the given system. This brings us to a third major resource I would like to discuss--track position or ability group membership. That resource affects the student's ability to influence significant others and at the time has crucial effects on the types of feedback, attention, labels, and opportunities the student is likely to experience in his or her progression through the means-end ladder.

A major caveat must precede any discussion of the ramifications of tracking or ability grouping. Specifically, it must be thoroughly borne in mind that the numerous investigations of the impact of tracking on educational attainment have by and large produced highly inconsistent findings and have therefore provided few sound bases for generalizing about the merits and shortcomings of tracking except in a highly qualified, tentative manner. With that caveat in mind, then, I shall review briefly some of the power-relevant findings on the effects of tracking in hopes that this review will foremostly stimulate an openness of attitude toward tracking as both a pedagogical and a sociopolitical procedure.

First of all, I shall point to some of the possible effects track position has on students' power. Four tentative generalizations might be advanced in that regard. (1) Except in the highest, most prestigious track it seems likely that track position negatively affects the academic motivation of some students. (Alexander and McDill 1976; Cottle 1974; Elsie 1976; Haderman 1976; Maddock 1975) That is, more heterogeneous

groups may in general enhance academic motivation more than relatively homogeneous groups of students. (2) Track position may itself affect the direction and degree of change in the IQ score of a given student. (Rosenbaum 1975; Rosenthal and Jacobson 1966) Higher track placement may then be significantly conducive to positive and larger IQ score changes than low track placement. (3) Track position tends to affect students' self-perceptions of ability with the higher placed students tending to develop self-perceptions of ability which are more positive in content. (Cottle 1974; Haderman 1976; Richer 1976; Schafer and Olexa 1971) (4) More generally, track position tends to correlate positively with students' levels of self-esteem. (Haderman 1976; Knight 1974; Mason 1974, Richer 1976) Thus track position does seem to be a matter of no little concern to students, tending to serve as one basis on which they make judgments about themselves and their peers. To the extent that tracking systems tend to have these sorts of effects, they diminish the power of those students so affected. Specifically, tracking may render large numbers of students less able to influence their teachers (as well as their parents and peers) so as to elicit desired amounts of attention, support, guidance, and encouragement. Thus tracking might have among its effects that of depowering some students, i.e., eroding over time the amounts of some of their important resources.

At the same time it seems plausible that among teachers in different tracks there may be differences in the ways they typically use their own power. In other terms, the socialization of students which teachers accomplish by virtue of activating their resources (e.g., praise, criticism, labels, grades) may vary significantly, both qualitatively and quantitatively, with the track position of the classes they are teaching. (Rist 1973; Rosenbaum 1975) Thus teachers' expectations may be positively correlated with track position and to the extent that their behavior manifests, however subtly or not, those expectations their own behavior might be examined in terms of the possible ways it serves to create and maintain a system of felt stratification within the schools.

Micro-Level Implications.

The preceding line of reasoning implies that the initial distribution of power within a group of individuals negotiating the same means-end ladder will tend to be perpetuated by monitors of that ladder. (I have maintained that the greater the individual's power, the greater the gross amount of positive reinforcement he is likely to receive.) Coupling that contention with the assumption that individual's resources remain constant over a given time period, the logical conclusion is that among a group of individuals negotiating the same step of a means-end ladder the overall effect of differential reinforcement is to perpetuate the initial power differentials among them. In Kerckhoff's terms,

> "...he who performs well early will be rewarded, will be provided with further opportunities, will develop a view of the world as a place where effort pays, and thus will remain relatively ambitious."
> (Kerckhoff 1974, 6)

In our terms, the student who has the greater resources (e.g., high ability, high SES, favorable track position) will be more reinforced and in the process will accrue additional resources (e.g., intensified aspirations, felt power, sense of control).

Power and attainment processes, then, are importantly related at the interpersonal level. Some of the empirical data on educational attainment could be fruitfully interpreted from a power perspective. The major independent variables which preoccupy attainment researchers have considerable explanatory import when conceived as resources. Social origins, ability, aspirations, expectations, and other such factors do in fact contribute to an individual's power to negotiate the institutionalized systems which entitle him or her to given levels of educational attainment. Thus attention to the phenomenon of power in interpreting attainment data makes theoretical sense.

CONCLUSION

To the extent that power has been neglected by attainment scholars, there is a distinct possibility that explanatory efforts to date are implicitly biased. Specifically, to emphasize outside of a power framework the causal significance of such factors as aspirations, ability, SES, and the like is perhaps to provide implicit bases for victim-blaming interpretations of low levels of educational attainment. As an ideology Blaming the Victim

> "...attributes defect and inadequacy to the malignant nature of poverty, injustice, slum life, and racial difficulties. The stigma that marks the victim and accounts for his victimization is an acquired stigma, a stigma of social, rather than genetic, origin. But the stigma, the defect, the fatal difference--though derived in the past from environmental forces--is still located within the victim, inside his skin...." (Ryan 1971, 7, 9)

Blaming the Victim, then, involves an overemphasis on the victim's differences (supposed or real) and "defects" as causal factors (Ryan 1971, 8) and underemphasis of other important factors that might ordinarily be accepted as relevant. (Ryan 1971, 14) Thus explanations of attainment which emphasize causal factors of the type cited above (e.g., aspirations) but which do not give due attention to the matter of power might result implicitly in a victim-blaming stance with respect to those experiencing low levels of educational attainment in American society.

That the relationship of power to educational attainment has not been explored to date nor attended to by attainment researchers suggests, then, the possibility of sociopolitical bias. It is imperative that the theoretical

possibilities raised here be confronted in the interest of tempering the abstracted empiricism (Mills 1969) which renders attainment research to date apparently susceptible to serious political and ideological abuse. Furthermore, exploration of such possibilities might provide grounds for futher understanding how people "become located" as well as "locate themselves" in the hierarchy of inequality.

FOOTNOTES

1. See Rogers (1974) for a more fully developed and explicated treatment of this concept of power.

2. Hauser (1969, 611) and Sewer and Hauser (1975, 105) report opposite findings with reference to this point.

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ON KNOWING AND DOING

by

Daniel J. Herman

A common criticism of American education is that teachers are generally unable to explain clearly and precisely what they are trying to accomplish with their students. The explanations are generally stated vaguely which raises the question as to whether the pedagogical situation is either itself vague or whether the teacher himself does not know what he is supposed to accomplish.

The move to combat such a chaotic situation has been called by various terms: writing behavioral objectives, stating performance objectives, or simply competency-based education.

The purpose of the following remarks is not to pass a negative evaluation on such a move. For what could possibly be wrong with stating the goals of education or of a course in particular? The purpose is rather to raise some questions as to whether the use of terminology such as behavioral objective does not conceal a blurring of the distinction between knowing and doing. If the distinction between knowing and behaving is ignored one of the consequences that would follow would be some gross anti-intellectualism of the kind that has and is being experienced in some totalitarian regimes.

The very existence of a human school of learning, no matter what school or where it might be located is based on the experiential fact that humans can behave and produce better than animals can, as the former have learned the why and wherefore of their behavior either in their doing or their making.

The very existence of a school therefore implies that the teacher student relation is triadic: a person T teaches some kind of knowledge to another person S. Now this relation is triadic which means that it has three terms: the person who teaches, the person who is taught and what is taught--some kind of knowledge. The relation is similar to that of "giving" and dissimilar to that of "pushing." Peter gives x to Paul is a triadic relation whereas "pushing" is a diadic relation since it has only two terms. It is the fact that what is taught is some kind of knowledge that makes the teaching relation triadic. Just as there cannot be a giver without a gift, so there can be no teacher without the possibility of some kind of knowledge which is taught.

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In the teacher-student relation, in the activity of teaching and learning the focus of the activity must be the student. Parenthetically, there is a certain similarity between the teaching activity and art. Both the artist and the teacher must know the nature of the raw material they are working with. The sculptor can do certain things with marble that he cannot do with bronze and conversely. Likewise, the teacher must know the student, who he is, if he is to help him to learn. If the student is to be helped to get to know some kind of knowledge, then the teacher should know at any given time what the student does or does not know. Otherwise, the student will see no connection between what he already knows and that which he is encouraged to get to know.

In a sense there is a violation of the student to the degree that the teacher does not know what he himself is supposed to teach as well as when he does not know the mind of the student. For the student tends to become like the marble in the hands of the sculptor to the degree that the teacher merely "tells" the student and the student merely parrots. Then the student really never gets to know although he may get to behave in a certain way, and have caused in him certain attitudes. In fact, this defines propaganda in the worst sense of the term. A certain kind of advertising may "tell" a person what to do, what attitudes to have, and through much conditioning usually through the form of repeition, a person may behave in that manner without having the slightest idea why he acts the way he does, or even whether he should act that way. It should be noted that the focus of responsibility for such conditioning resides in the school as reflected in the curriculum, the teacher as well as the student himself. Such a reductionism of knowing to doing can be correctly called an anti-intellectualism which is becoming prevalent in the American system of education

To illustrate the point, let us take a brief look at competency based education in the State of Florida. The first two of the 23 generic competencies mandate that the student shall "Demonstrate the ability to orally communicate information on a given topic in a coherent and logical manner" as well as the capability to "Demonstrate the ability to write in a logical, easily understood style with appropriate grammar and sentence structure." Such demands are, of course, very commendable and it is my understanding that various moves throughtout the state are on foot to correct the otherwise deplorable spelling and grammar of students. I fail to see, however, that any such move is being undertaken to instill logical reasoning in them. It is evident that someone may get to learn to write with perfect grammar and spelling and still be uttering or writing nonsense. To say, for example, that "the Aryan race is superior" may be good English but extremely bad logic since this is an absurd statement. Logic, which is unanimously defined by logicians as "the science of correct reasoning" is not required by most disciplines in the majority of American universities. At most it is offered as an "elective" which amounts to saying that if a student wishes to reason correctly then he should take a course in logic, but if he doesn't so wish then that's that. Yet, the State of Florida does require logical reasoning on the part of the students, but how on earth or in heaven is he going to acquire this knowledge if his own teacher does not have it?

What we have said about logical reasoning equally applies to ethics, for there is no question whatsoever that the last 5 generic competencies refer to ethical categories such as academic needs, the dignity and worth of people, the development of a positive self-concept, assisting students in developing their own values, attitudes and beliefs.

For the sake of brevity I must limit myself to a few remarks pertaining to these demands and once again not that I find these demands unreasonable, quite to the contrary I find that they are eminently rational. What I question is how these mandates are going to be enforced? It is obvious once again that if competency-based education requires that students learn in a different way than they have learned before then a fortiori, must not the teachers be educated in a different way than they have before? In other words, should not the teacher know what they are supposed to be teaching? It has been my experience that teachers of practicially all grades have not been able to distinguish between academic needs and interests. This distinction is an important one for the blurring of it would amount to the ridiculous if not devastating situation where parents would let their children eat all of their meals in an ice-cream parlor. It has also been my experience that the majority of teachers polled in classrooms don't have the foggiest idea about either what constitutes the dignity of the human person, or what the difference is between knowing, believing and attitudes.

With respect to logic and ethics, the critic will probably point out that there are different kinds of logic just as people have espoused different kinds of ethics at different times and different places, so who is to say which logic and which ethics should be taught? Such criticisms merely expresss the ignorance of the critic for had he, first of all, studied logic then he would know that there is an essential logic that one ought to know in order to rationally communicate with one's fellowmen. In the second place, it should be pointed out that because people have behaved differently at different times and places this in itself does not constitute a criterion for how people ought to behave. The criterion lies elsewhere, and as far as Americans are concerned the ethical criterion has been laid down in the American constitution, so that if Americans are going to stay in America and rationally behave like Americans, then why not teach them the ethics of the American constitution?

The critic of this paper will probably again retort that what we have advocated is some kind of intellectualism to be pushed in the schools without regard to the material needs of the student and society. In answer to this, I may say that the critic would be right if I had made an absolute distinction between knowing and doing, but this is not the case. Several years ago, I personally witnessed on our campus a renewal of the old feud between the protagonist of excess intellectualism and the so called "progressivist." The former stressed knowing over doing, the latter emphasized doing (the vocational) over knowing (the liberal). Had both adversaries taken a course in elementary logic they would have realized that their positions were not contradictories but contraries, which means that they were both right in what they asserted and false in what they denied.

As far as my position is concerned, knowing and doing are instrumentally related to one another. Knowing without relation to the material needs of the student and society is idle speculation, just as doing without really knowing amounts to a subhuman activitiy. The relation between knowing and doing is one that is distinctive of human nature. Man knows what he does whereas an animal does not, it just does it. If I am correct, then the purpose of a school, any school whatsoever, is to teach some kind of knowledge and doing becomes secondary to it, otherwise the absolute uniqueness of the school is lost to some ideological goal which is characteristic of the facist regimes--those kind of regimes which on the political level the American public has fought with all its heart, with all its soul, with all its blood and with all its dollars. Why not fight them on the educational level as well?

Inter-Ethnic Family Relationships: An Examination of Children's Literature Utilized in an Escambia County Public School

by

Kathryn Evans

Abstract

It has been clearly documented that schools assist in the socialization process of the young in that they provide an environment through which dominant cultural attitudes and vlaues may be transmitted. This study examined children's literature in terms of its role as a significant instrument of cultural conditioning and the role of literature in the shaping of certain societal attitudes, specificially those related to ethnic bias. With the stigma of inter-ethnic familial relationships having been eroded through recent legal action as well as social and scientific research, it was considered appropriate to look at literature in actual use by young children to determine ethnic focus within the context of the family. A sample of 423 books, designated as Easy books, i.e., suitable for use with children grades K - 3, was analyzed in terms of presentation of familial groups as ethnically integrated or ethnically separate. The variables of sex and age were also considered as possibly influencing presentation of individuals within familial groups. Chi-square analysis indicated that male dominance of main characters, female dominance of secondary characters, and the large percentages of all characters having Caucasian extraction, were statistically significant. There were no books present in the collection expressing inter-ethnic familial relationships. The author posits that the failure to reflect the social reality of the pluralism of the child's world perpetuates conditions germane to ethnic conflict and ill-prepares the child for positive social change.

Introduction

Children's literature has commanded a wealth of systematic investigation (Mac Leod, 1975; Meigs, Eaton, Nesbitt, & Viguers, 1953; Weitzman, 1972) warranted by what seems to be a general agreement that printed materials may have considerable influence upon value judgments, especially in regard to young children (Cianciolo, 1973; Kircher, 1968). Nearly all schools

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upon literature in present use by children in order to emphasize that literature which suggests that members of a family must be tied to one ethnic group may, in effect, cloud children's perceptions of reality.

For those connected with schooling institutions to be cognizant of this occurring may be a factor in the eradication of stereotypical images and the reduction of ethnic conflict.

Method

Methodologically, the exploratory nature of this research suggested the case study as an appropriate framework. The focus was that of an interrelationship analysis pertinent to one specific organization. The limitation of the study, however, was that there was no assurance that the organization was representative of other similar organizations and findings derived from this study may not be generalized to other cases.

The organization was Scenic Heights Elementary School, Pensacola, Florida, which, with an enrollment of 942, was the largest elementary school in the Escambia County Public School System. The principal described the school as having less than two percent ethnic minority membership and the general socio-economic level of the students as slightly upper middle class. The objectives of the study were (1) to determine whether the literature, provided for children in grades K - 3 through the school library, showed polarized or integrative ethnic family relationships and (2) whether the variables of sex and age influenced the character presentations of the ethnic family relationships.

Population

The library collection of 2740 Easy books[3] at Scenic Heights Elementary School was the population that facilitated collection of data. Following the methodological assumptions inherent in a case study, all books so classified were considered. However, a systematic sample of 423 Easy books was drawn from the total Easy book collection. These 423 books were those books in the collection meeting the following criteria:

(1) Books which contained stories focusing only on human familial relationships, (2) books in which the dominant character was established by the title or the text, (3) books which contained both pictures and text, (4) evidence in the text that the person pictures had a primary family relationship with the dominant character, and (5) utilization of the first story in each book if the book had more than one story.

The total Easy book collection was arranged alphabetically by author on the library shelves. At the time of the study (July - August, 1977), the school was on summer recess; consequently the total collection was accessible to the researcher.

Collection of Data

Data for this study were obtained through content analysis as a means of focusing on family relationships within the books. A typology was set up to accommodate the ethnic nature of family relationships vis-a-vis those of the same ethnic relationships according to a tabulation of male and female, child-child, adult-adult, and child-adult encounters (see Appendix 1).

Ethnicity was coded according to definitions given by the U.S. Office of Education compilation of school statistics.[4] The basic framework for coding was supplemented by Haas' Ethnic Polarization and School Library Materials, 1971. Haas also utilized the definitions of ethnic majority and ethnic minority given by the U.S. Office of Education in her 1971 study of school library materials and expanded the definitions to include other world-wide areas besides the U.S. Definitive ethnic extraction was determined either by its being documented in the preface or text. Those cases in which extraction was not specified in the preface or text of the book, the author relied on verification provided by H. S. Wilson's Children's Catalog.[5] While the author is cognizant of the necessity for reliability measures of coding procedures in content analysis (Pierce & Carew, 1977), the variables of facility utilization, economic costs and time expediency precluded such measures.

The method for identifying and recording content variables was as follows:

1. The bibliographical data on the tabulation sheet (see Appendix 1) was recorded for each book containing human characters. The dominant character was then determined either by title or repeated appearance in the text. If a book had more than one story, only the first story was considered.

2. When the dominant character was identified, he was designated on the coding sheet by ethnic group membership and sex, with the appropriate symbol (see Appendix 2).

3. On the basis of gender of pronouns, descriptions in the text, title (e.g., Mr., Mrs.) or illustration, the dominant character was identified as male or female and recorded under sex in the first cell in the first row to the right of the slash mark.

4. The dominant character was recorded as an adult or child based on illustration, specific statement of age level or social role in the text.

5. The first primary familial relationship of the dominant character as expressed in both illustration and text was determined on the basis of social role, title, or family name.

contain libraries or book collections and for the very young child, this literature may be an especially significant source of information since textbooks, as such, are infrequently used in the early grades. Literature, particularly that presented within the sanction of the school, provides the young child with vicarious extensions of experience outside his own value system (Maccoby, 1968). Because of immaturity and limited personal experience, the child may attribute a certain amount of validity to the social situations he perceives in this literature.

McClelland, in an extensive study of achieving societies notes that children's literature is projective and tends to reflect the motives and values of the culture (McClelland, 1961). We have learned from the area of political socialization that the school is a microsociety of the larger system within which it exists (Easton, 1965). The school is one of the agents providing the system with diffuse support, secured through a political socialization, which orients the young to appropriate values, attitudes and behaviors (Wirt & Kirst, 1972). The organizational hierarchy of the school, the interactions of the teachers, the instructional media, may all serve as political instruments through which the values and attitudes of the macrosociety are conveyed (Dreeban, 1968; Massailas, 1969).

Although it is unknown the extent to which childhood socialization affects subsequent adult political attitudes (Easton and Dennis, 1969), credence to the assumption that it does is supported by several important studies in the sixties concerned with the childhood antecedents of adult political response. Considered seminal are the New Haven study of Greenstein (1965), the Chicago study of Hess and Torney (1967) and Easton and Dennis' work (1969).

With the present national committment to human rights, the issue is one of an open society in which the right for all to exist with human dignity is inherent. The landmark decision of Brown vs. the Board of Education, 1954 initiated legal support for the eradication of separatism of ethnic groups.[2] The expectation of subsequent judicial expression was that a variety of value systems could not only coexist but be nurtured and that all human beings could have a right to participate fully, independent of ethnicity or social class. (Della - Dora & House, 1976).

Earlier separatism extended to the non-acceptance of intermarrige between Whites and ethnic minorities (Mississippi, 1930, Code Ann., sec. 1103; Florida Statutes 741.11 - 741.17), but more recent legal action (Loving vs. Virginia 338, U. S. 1 1967) has supported the erosion of the stigma of inter-ethnic familial relationships. Further, social and scientific research has suggested that there is no scientific basis for presuming ethnic intermixture detrimental (Montagu, 1974).

While there has been a significant amount of research related to the representation of ethnic minorities in children's literature (Broderick, 1973; Gast, 1967; Larrick; Yee, 1973) little, if any, has dealt with the representation of the social reality of inter-ethnic families. The study focused

6. Based on the criteria used in 3, the sex of the secondary character in the first interaction was recorded next to that of the dominant character to the left of the slash mark.

7. Using the appropriate ethnic group membership symbol for the secondary character and the criterion for age in 4, the interaction of the dominant character and the secondary character was recorded under adult-child, adult-adult, or child-child in the first row.

8. If there was a second interaction of the dominant character with a different secondary character that met the criteria described in 1 through 5, the interaction was recorded in the second row of cells on the coding sheet, duplicating the procedure outlined in 6 and 7.

Statistical Procedure

The use of a nonparametric tool for analysis was commensurate with the characteristics of the case study. Because of the exploratory nature of the study, with no operational or statistical hypothesis established prior to analyses of results, the most appropriate test of statistical significance was Chi-square (Kerlinger, 1973). The data were measured at the nominal level, the number of cases, or sample, was relatively small and the typology of the study required analyses of relationships between two variables: like and cross-race familial encounters, opposite and same-age and sex, encounters - age and sex, encounter - age, and encounter - sex.

Results and Interpretation

Of the dominant characters identified, 381 were children (90 percent) and 42 were adults (10 percent). Of the children, 68.5 percent (261) were male and 31.5 percent (120) were female. Male children were therefore represented more than twice as often as female children.

Ethnic representation of the dominant child characters revealed that 79.8 percent (304) were of European extraction-ethnic majority. Ethnic minorities were seen as dominant child characters: African - African American 6.3 percent (24), Oriental - Oriental American 5.8 percent (22), Latin - Latin American 3.9 percent (15), American Indian 2.1 percent (8), Other (Polynesian, Filipino, Indonesian, East Indian, Iraqi, Pakistani, Syrian, Aboriginal Australian) 1.0 percent (4), Other Americans (Eskimo, Polynesian and Filipino living in the U.S.) 0.5 percent (2), Spanish - Spanish American 0.5 percent (2).

The adult dominant characters were 83.3 percent male (35) and 16.7 percent female (7). Again, male domination registered almost six to one. The ethnic representation of the adult dominant characters showed an ethnic majority of 92.9 percent (39) as compared to only two ethnic minority representations of American Indian, 4.8 percent (2) and Other Americans 2.4 percent (1).

There were 67 secondary child characters represented as having a first encounter identified with the dominant characters. Of that total, 58.2 percent (39) were again male and 41.8 percent (28) were female. Ethnic majority domination continued in the secondary child characters as 86.6 percent (58) were of European extraction. The other ethnic secondary child representations were: Latin - Latin American 4.5 percent (3), Oriental - Oriental American 4.5 percent (3), African - African American 3.0 percent (2) and American Indian 1.5 percent (1).

The adult secondary characters identified as having a familial relationship with the primary character were 356. However, there was a reverse in the sex representation as 66.9 percent (238) of the adult secondary characters were female and 33.1 percent (118) were male. The ethnic majority representation continued with the adult secondary characters as 80.1 percent (285) were of European extraction. Other adult secondary ethnic characters were African - African American 6.2 percent (22), Oriental - Oriental American 5.3 percent (19), Latin - Latin American 3.4 percent (12), American Indian 2.5 percent (9), Other 1.1 percent (4), Other American 0.8 percent (3), Spanish - Spanish American 0.6 percent (2).

In order to expand the data, the study also focused on familial relationships between the primary characters and a second encounter or relationships identified with a second character. Only 115 of the primary characters were identified as having a documented familial relationship with a second character. Of that total, 82 percent (94) were children while 18 percent (21) were adults. A further disaggregation of these data showed that 70.2 percent (66) of the child primary/dominant characters who were identified as having a familial relationship in the story a second time were male and 29.8 percent (28) were female. The ethnic majority were again represented 73.4 percent of the time (69 child characters). Ethnic minorities were shown as children: 8.5 percent (8) for African - African American, 7.4 percent (7) for Latin - Latin American, 6.4 percent for Oriental - Oriental American, 3.2 percent (3) for American Indian, 1.1 percent (1) Other. Of the primary adult characters who had a second familial relationship identified, 85.7 percent (18) were male while 14.3 percent (3) were female. The adult primary characters were 95.2 percent (20) European extraction and 4.8 percent (1) Other American.

The breakdown of those data for the secondary characters having a relationship to the primary characters was as follows: of the 115 secondary characters of the second interaction with the main character, 71 were children; 53.5 percent (38) of whom were female and 46.5 percent (33) were male. All but two of the ethnic categories appear: European - European American 77.5 percent (55), African - African American 7.0 percent (5), Latin - Latin American 5.6 percent (4), Oriental - Oriental American 5.6 percent (4), American Indian 2.8 percent (2), and Other American 1.4 percent (1).

The ethnic distribution of the 44 adult characters with whom a second encounter occurred was: European - European American 77.3 percent (34), Latin - Latin American 6.8 percent (3), African - African American 6.8 percent (3), Oriental - Oriental American 4.5 percent (2), American Indian 2.3 percent (1), and Other 2.3 percent (1).

The frequency distributions presented in the preceding paragraphs provided a basis for identifying trends and patterns of ethnic groups representation of families. Broadly, the findings presented the dominant characters as children (90 percent), male (68.5 percent), and of European or Caucasian extraction. Caucasian representation was never less than 73.4 percent in any of the sub-group tabulations. Minority representation was never more than 7.4 percent (Latin - Latin American). Blacks (African - African American) were represented no more than 6.8 percent and Orientals no more than 6.4 percent. All other minorities showed minimal representation.

Relationships between the dominant characters and the first encountered family member were child-adult relationships with females predominant as secondary characters (66.9 percent). The second familial encounter of the dominant character expressed a shift from the child-adult relationship to the child-child, but the majority of the secondary encounters in the second encounter were still female (56.5 percent).

Statistical Analysis

Within the frequency distributions of ethnic group representation of families, a determination of significance was made according to certain sub-group classifications, utilizing the chi-square statistic and an .05 level of statistical significance (confidence that the found distribution could not occur by change alone more than five times in one hundred). The ethnic group tabulations were analyzed for opposite and same-age and sex, all encounters - age and sex, sex and first and second encounter, and age and first and second encounter differences.

Table 1. defines the opposite and same relationship between the variables of age and sex. The X^2 value at 1 degree of freedom was 10.039, significant at the .05 level. Since this figure shows significance, these data suggest that male or female child characters would not likely be shown in family relationships with persons of similar sex and age.

Table 1.
Same and Opposite Sex and Age (First Encounter)

	Opposite Age Group	Same Age Group	Total
Opposite Sex N	164	75	239
%	38.8	17.7	56.5
Same Sex N	152	32	184
	35.9	7.6	43.5
Total N	316	107	423
	74.7	25.3	100.0

X^2 value at 1 d/f is 10.039
Significance level - .05

A like analysis of the encounter of the dominant character and a second character encounter did not reveal any statistical significance. The X^2 value at 1 degree of freedom was 0.303. Table 2 illustrates this analysis.

Table 2.
Same and Opposite Sex and Age (Second Encounter)

		Opposite Age Group	Same Age Group	Total
Opposite Sex	N	32	30	62
	%	27.8	26.1	53.9
Same Sex	N	31	22	53
	%	27.0	19.1	46.1
Total	N	63	52	115
	%	54.8	45.2	100.0

X^2 value at 1 d/f is 0.303
Significance level = .05

Chi-square analysis of all encounters identified (538) indicated significance between the variables of age and sex. The X^2 value at 9 degrees of freedom was 49.350, significant at the .05 level. Table 3 shows that the relationship between child-adult representation and male-female representation occurred beyond reasonable chance.

Table 3.
Age and Sex

		Both Child	Adult-Child	Child-Adult	Both Adult	Total
Both Female	N	12	0	82	0	94
	%	2.2	0.0	15.2	0.0	17.5
Male-Female	N	45	9	152	31	237
	%	8.4	1.7	28.3	5.8	44.1
Female-Male	N	21	2	33	8	64
	%	3.9	0.4	6.1	1.5	11.9
Both Male	N	39	10	91	3	143
	%	7.2	1.9	16.9	0.6	26.6
Total	N	117	21	358	42	538
	%	21.7	3.9	66.5	7.8	100.0

X^2 value at 9 d/f is 49.350
Significance level = .05

An examination of the first and second encounters and the variable of age illustrated in Table 4, again produced a significant relationship beyond chance. The X^2 value at 3 degrees of freedom was 130.219, significant at the .05 level. The encounters themselves thus differed significantly relative to age representation.

Table 4.
First and Second Encounters and Age

		Both Child	Adult-Child	Child-Adult	Both Adult	Total
First	N	66	1	315	41	423
Encounter	%	12.3	0.2	58.6	7.6	78.6
Second	N	51	20	43	1	115
Encounter	%	9.5	3.7	8.0	0.2	21.4
Total	N	117	21	358	42	538
	%	21.7	3.9	66.5	7.8	100.0

X^2 value at 3 d/f is 130.219.
Significance level = .05

An analysis of the first and second encounters and the variable of sex produced no evidence of a relationship as shown in Table 5. The X^2 value at 3 degrees of freedom was 2.020, significant at the .05 level.

Table 5.
First and Second Encounters and Sex

		Both Female	Male-Female	Female-Male	Both Male	Total
First	N	77	189	50	107	423
Encounter	%	14.3	35.1	9.3	19.9	78.6
Second	N	17	48	14	36	115
Encounter	%	3.2	8.9	2.6	6.7	21.4
Total	N	94	237	64	143	538
	%	17.5	44.1	11.9	26.6	100.0

X^2 value at 3 d/f is 2.020
Significance = .05

The major focus of the study, as was stated previously, was whether the Easy books contained within the library collection of Scenic Heights Elementary School showed polarity of integration of familial relationships. Of the total encounters identified (538), characters were always shown in family relationships with those of the same ethnic groups. Table 6 describes the datum pretinent to the central concern of the study and leads to the conclusion that since there were no recorded presentations of inter-ethnic families, the literature does tend to show ethnic polarity in familial relationships.

Table 6.
Familial Encounter and Ethnic Group

		Same Ethnic	Inter-ethnic	Total
First Encounter	N	423	0	423
	%	78.6	0.0	78.6
Second Encounter	N	115	0	115
	%	21.4	0.0	21.4
Total	N	538	0	538
	%	100.0	0.0	100.0

Discussion

Despite the children's literature of this study reflecting no inter-ethnic families, Monahan (1976) has documented a significant increase nationally in the incidence of interracial marriages. An examination of 3,170 marriage license applications in Escambia County, Florida, from September 1976 through September 1977 revealed that 1.2 percent of these applications indicated cross-ethnic relationships. (Florida statutes forbidding such marriages, specifically between Negroes and whites, were not repealed until 1967.) It is reasonable to assume that such families exist not only nationally, but locally. A survey of the listings of school and library media recommendations (Best Books for Children, 1972; H. W. Wilson's Children's Catalog, 13th Ed., 1976, and Supplement, Kirkus Reviews) indicated that though small in number, books about interracial families exist, and are, for the most part, recommended for inclusion in library collections. Failure to provide even vicarious experience with these families may covertly imply to children certain negative assumptions. The Author's observations over a number of years of children's compositions has supported the assumption that the family is very important to the young child. It is not until later that the peer group takes precedence; the child's family is nearly always the center of his dictated or written stories. The portrayal of family clusters always within the same ethnic group may reinforce stereotypical notions of what a family should be, causing rejection of individuals of mixed race simply on the basis of parentage.

In actual fact, literature perpetuating any sterotyping whether it be of race, sex, old age or any other definable group, may discourage children from perceiving persons as individuals unrelated to stereotypical group images. The possibility is that we are fostering in schools negative or hostile attitudes between groups that may lead to socially destructive competition.

The heavy representation of Caucasian families in the literature is perhaps as disturbing as the absence of inter-ethnic representation. Particularly in schools where the enrollment is predominantly of the ethnic majority, a biased selection of books may contribute to a narrowness of social perception and an artificially limited horizon. The stigma of omission distorts conceptionalization of the diversity of our society and encourages an unfounded sense of ethnic superiority. A high percentage of representation of any ethnic group in children's literature may be unreflective of our legally sanctioned ethnic integration and may not be supportive of what we wish to legitamize in society.

Finally, it is a matter of our responsibilities as educators. As reasonable persons, we are all aware that schooling alone cannot change undesirable patterns of group relationships in the United States. Schools can, however, work toward the development of sensitivities and concerns that may contribute to the alignment of responsible human beings beside other forces working for positive human relations.

APPENDIX 1

DATA TABULATION FORM				
Author _____				
Title _____				
Publication Information _____				
Sex	Adult-Child	Adult-Adult	Child-Child	Child-Adult
/ (1)	/	/	/	/
/ (2)	/	/	/	/

APPENDIX 2
ETHNIC CODING

E-EA European or European American (also Australian, Canadian West South African, British, Russian, or Continental European descent).

S-SA- Spanish or Spanish American (Mexican or Puerto Rican descent).

L-LA- South or Central American and Caribbean or descent, but excluding American Indian.

O-OA- Oriental or Oriental American (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, South East Asian or descent).

AI- American Indian.

A-AA- African or African American.

OA- Other Americans (Polynesia, Eskimo, Filipino living in the U.S. and unspecified elsewhere).

O- Other (Polynesian, Filipino, Indonesian, East Indian, Iraqi, Pakastanian, Syrian, Aboriginal Australian, or unspecific elsewhere) (Adapted from Haas, 1971).

NOTES

1. In the interest of simplification, the author has used the grammatical purist approach in designating the child in masculine gender, meaning either male or female.

2. Recognizing that the substitution of "ethnic" for "race" is not standard practice, certain scientific prescriptions of the social scientists deem the use of "race" restrictive. In Appendices A and B of Ashley Montagu's Man's Most Dangerous Myth (1974), the matter is treated in greater detail.

3. Ethnic majority is defined by the U.S. Office of Education compilations of school statistics to include persons of European descent, but excluding Spanish Americans and other Latin Americans. Ethnic minorities are defined by the agency above to include persons of non-European descent and also Spanish Americans and other Latin Americans.

4. Easy books are fiction or non-fiction books classified by librarians as being especially suitable for young children, and in schools, for children in grades K - 3.

5. Children's Catalog is one of the commonly used selection guides relating to literature and other library media for use in schools. See also, Phyllis Van Orden, Ed. The Elementary School Library Collection: A Guide to Books and Other Media (10th ed.). New Brunswick, N. J.: The Bro-Dart Foundation, 1976.

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LIBERALLY EDUCATED TEACHERS: A FORCE TO REDUCE EDUCATIONAL FRAGMENTATION

by

Ann T. Agnew

While it is difficult to describe the preparation of a liberally educated teacher in terms of a specific course of study to be pursued at a university, it is safe to assume that such an education would provide more than a surface acquaintance with several areas of knowledge. Further, the potential teacher would probably select a focal point (a major field) to which and from which he would try to relate knowledge from several disciplines.

The candidate would strive to establish a base of academic knowledge upon which to build specific teaching skills. Methodology alone would not serve as a focal point. Methodology is a process variable employed to achieve a product: children's learning. However, a process variable assumes the presence of a presage variable. That is to say, a body of understandings must exist upon which to develop and conduct the methodology of teaching. Smith et al cautioned teacher evaluators against over reliance on exhibitions of technical teaching skills to assess teacher competence:

> Performance in teaching may indicate competence, or it may not indicate anything more than habit--unexamined techniques that the teacher has always used or seen other teachers use. A "performance only" view of teaching may be adequate for "assessing" some straight forward teaching behavior that researchers now believe will improve teaching effectiveness, such as "eye-to-eye" contact, moving around the classroom instead of standing up front, asking an indirect question instead of always telling, and so forth; but performance alone cannot reveal the intelligence or the value or attitude in the teaching-learning transaction. A performance of discrete acts of teaching cannot account for the total act that involves an integrated series of thought-value judgments brought to insightful application in style and content. The competent teacher formulates and applies conceptual-valuative schemes (ideational structures)

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> derived from both professional and academic knowledge at the same time.... Professional and academic thought, value, and attitude cannot be separated in the reality of teaching. (Smith, Goodman, and Meredith, 1976, 120)

While the reality of teaching makes a separation between knowledge and skills difficult, it is possible to conceptually distinguish knowledge from skills. Further, some skills can be observed. As noted by MacDonald-Ross, "To have a skill is to have the ability to execute useful tasks to publicly agreed standards of performance."[2] (MacDonald-Ross, 1973, 29) The liberally educated teacher should, as much as any teacher, exhibit the pedagogical skills that can be identified and publicly assessed. In addition, however, the liberally educated teacher possesses a background of academic knowledge that provides the teacher with more options to draw upon when he constructs the environment within which the pupil-teacher interaction takes place.

By virtue of his knowledge from several disciplines, the liberally educated teacher is disposed to perceive connections between apparently unrelated phenomena. This expectation of perceiving the interrelatedness of the field of man's knowledge serves to alert the teacher to the narrowness of viewing children's learning as occurring within isolated compartments. The expectation of connectedness makes it possible for the teacher to deliberately plan classroom experiences which highlight for children the relationships among the conventionally defined areas of the curriculum.

The teacher's planning skills involve decision making about such matters as the establishment of priorities for instructional objectives and the selection of appropriate learning activities. Such decision making requires professional knowledge and skills. The liberally educated teacher can bring to these decision making points areas of academic knowledge which enable him to entertain a wide vision as he selects ways to implement his objectives. He can help children understand, for example, that the ingredients and methods of cooking utilized by a cultural group reflect geographic location, climate, religious beliefs and a host of other factors. Thus, cooking may be an appropriate activity for fostering children's understanding of several concepts frequently identified in a curriculum guide for the social studies. The use of cooking as a vehicle for developing social studies concepts is an instructional option not likely to be so apparent to a teacher whose professional preparation did not extend beyond a course of study devoted to the methodology of teaching basic school subjects.

Further the liberally educated teacher should be comfortable with modes of communication man has devised which include both lingual and nonlingual presentations. This comfort grows out of a conviction regarding the essentiality of children's contact with varied modes of illiteracy. As Smith et al stated:

> Rather than pursuing the vague concept of appreciation, the arts in the curriculum should fill the need for literacy in

> these particular modes of presentation. In a real sense, children need to learn how to present their ideas in art forms and how to "read" the symbolic presentation of others. Practice in the arts should be contiguous with practice in language presentation. The study of art, music, dance, and theater is not a frill but is an essential in the curriculum. (Smith, et al, 1976, 120).

The liberally educated teacher should not view the development of non-lingual forms of literacy as "add ons" to an already crowded curriculum. Instead, he should view the arts as an integral part of the study of language, mathematics, science and the social studies. He can accept and pursue the connectedness of man's areas of knowledge; he should constantly strive to confront children with this connectedness.

His liberal education background also should shield him from viewing children as one dimensional, cognitive creatures. His expectation of connectedness prepares him for the reality of children's responding to events as a complex of cognitive, affective and physical factors. Further, recognition of the complexity of human behavior should assist him in working constructively within the social system of the school where many specialists function along side the classroom teacher.

His acquaintance with several areas of man's knowledge should prepare him to respond positively to the specialized knowledge and skills of such people as psychometrists, reading diagnosticians, music teachers and special education personnel. He should be able to recognize that the specialized competencies of some of his professional peers are not aimed at intimidating the generalist. On the contrary, he is best equipped to serve as the agent who seeks to integrate specialized insights regarding children into a wholeness of response possible within the classroom. By the nature of his preservice preparation, the liberally educated teacher is uncomfortable with fragmentary knowledge; his expectation of the connectedness of knowledge should extend to his interpretation of data from specialists as he plans and implements learning activities for children.

The liberally educated teacher should also feel comfortable with the premise that solid theory ultimately may be the most practical information he may utilize in the classroom. His background should enable him to view teaching as intellectually demanding as well as a behavioral process. He will not see instruction as a bag of tricks in which one rummages about in order to pull out a method for the day. On the contrary, he can recognize that the uniqueness of his personality, the physical setting within which he functions and the children whom he teaches obviate mechanistic responses. He must seek structure at the cognitive level and draw upon these theoretical constructs to determine appropriate operational tactics. Gibson and Levin addressed this concern for theory in their discussion of the purpose governing the preparation of their text about the psychology of reading:

> ...Advice about instruction or comparison of programs, or prescriptions about what to do with retarded readers, cannot take the place of giving the potential teacher the intellectual tools to think for himself when problems arise. There is no such thing as a pedagogical panacea. Problems will arise, new ones, because children are different and environments are different. The teacher must be able to accommodate to them independently by providing the environment and the materials that the child's particular needs demand. We believe that we can be most helpful to teachers and others concerned with the teaching of reading by giving them insights into the process of reading rather than dogma. The aim (of this text) is to help them solve problems, not to provide a cookbook approach. In line with this aim, we shall favor rather than eschew theory, for as a great educator once said, there is nothing so practical as a good theory. (Gibson and Levin, 1976, 10)

Particularly in the current social context where there is demand for accountability for the outcomes of educational endeavor, faith in the relevance of theory to practice is needed. Necessary, too, is the psychological strength to maintain that belief under pressures directed at teachers.

In this regard, the liberally educated teacher may be in a somewhat stronger position to offset the potential negative impact of the trend towards the minimal competency testing of students. Harvey and Madaus concluded:

> Competency-testing schemes may have important unintended consequences, both for students and for the substance of what gets taught in school. The most sensible antidote to such side effects is to devote more attention to what should be taught in the schools and how to teach it effectively and less to that which can conveniently be measured. For the maximum of what currently can be measured, especially using paper and pencil competency tests, should not define the minimum of what is taught or learned. (Harvey and Madaus, 1978, 481)

The liberally educated teacher should not feel uncomfortable about devoting "more attention to what should be taught." Philosophical examination of the goals of education should be an activity germane to an individual who has been liberally educated.

There is great need today for liberally educated teachers in the schools. The complex of pressures emanating from financial constraints, reductive views of educational goals, and unfounded expectations concerning the present capabilities of psychometrics requires teachers whose intellectual habits prepare them to react creatively to such pressures. If accountability represents the latest fad in American education, then the outcomes are likely to dampen present enthusiasm as the shortcomings of operating educational institutions without the structure of a clearly articulated and honest philosophy becomes evident. Indeed, a resurgence of concern for liberal education is likely to occur. In the meantime, the schools are in need of teachers who can adapt to the pressures of the moment without relinquishing a wider vision.

The liberally educated teacher can and should achieve the professional knowledge and skills identified with education as an applied discipline. In addition, he can bring to his profession the academic knowledge and habits of thought fostered by a liberal arts curriculum. A marriage of these academic and professional understandings and skills may result in a happy issue: educators who can construct and communicate to students an ecological system of man's knowledge where fragmentation of education experiences is at least reduced if not eliminated.

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THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN PROMOTING HEALTHY CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE: LESSONS FROM SPECIAL EDUCATION

by

Patricia S. Taylor

Webster defined discipline as "training that develops self-control, character, or orderliness and efficiency" or "the result of such training." It is also defined as "acceptance of, or submission to authority and control." Discipline is lastly defined by Webster as "treatment that corrects or punishes." In schools we have come to accept the last definition: to discipline is to punish, or we require discipline, as when we demand order and self control from the student.

Requiring order and self-control must have been a simpler task when Americans lived in tightly knit cultural groups; when the teacher and the children came from the same, or at least similar, cultural backgrounds. Melting-pot America, and the resultant cultural diversity in the schools, have often inadvertently pitted culture against culture, value against value, and students from one culture against educators from another. Students and educators are often unaware of the subtle underpinnings of their confrontations.

How can we impose order and self-control on a child not belonging to us, since a child "belongs" to a family? Yet some order and much attention are prerequisites if learning is to happen for all. The field of Special Education may offer some assistance in viewing the problem of discipline from another perspective.

Educators usually don't refer to a student as being a discipline problem until that student begins to "act out" in class or indulges in impulsive or aggressive behavior. Behaviors which are perceived by teachers as being aggressive or "acting out" tend to be more characteristic of students from lower socio-economic classes (Graubard, 1969). This statement is not tantamount to saying that children from middle or upper socio-economic classes never exhibit these behaviors, but that aggressive and "acting out" behaviors occur more frequently when there are clashes of social and economic values.

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Aggressive and/or "acting out" behaviors which are considered to be discipline problems, become more understandable when viewed in the context of the environment in which they occur, or when viewed from the reference point of the student. To understand a student who is perceived as being a disrupter, one must objectively see the behavior, while subjectively understanding the student's behavior as a response to his unique experiences and environment.

Teacher's behaviors are determined as they interpret behavior of others, as monitored by their own cultural experiences and values. Certain cultural behaviors of others may be upsetting to teachers because they rely upon their own cultural vision to assess the apparent meaning of a student's behavior. The student who is often the greatest discipline problem is the student who violates the greatest number of cultural codes. These students are often referred for psychological evaluations, and are then placed in programs for children who are said to have emotional problems.

Certain behavioral patterns are deemed appropriate in the typical American classroom. A degree of respect (often resembling subservience), toward the classroom teacher, is frequently expected by the teacher. A student who has fended for himself, one who has necessarily had to grow up faster than his classmates, may legitimately be reluctant to behave in a way he might interpret as "paying homage" to the teacher.

Language patterns may further separate a student from his classmates and teacher. The structure of one's language, and the choice of vocabulary, make a statement about a person which evokes an impression on the part of the receiver. The listener's response can be pleasing, or it can reflect annoyance and displeasure. Teachers are often unaware of their nonverbal communication such as facial expressions, and body posture which convey disapproval to students. Students on a steady diet of disapproval may opt not to be a part of a system which is injurious to their self-esteem.

Until recently, we have failed to recognize the reciprocal dynamics of the behavior of children. Their behavior can be seen in an "ecological" light (Rhodes, 1969, 285). A student's behavior does not exist in isolation. When a student breaks a classroom code, he is reacting to an individual or to a group. That individual or group must be considered if the discipline problem is to be accurately assessed.

We do not know the extent to which the discipline problem pertains to the student or to what extent the individual educator, or group of educators have influenced the problem. A student's temperament and cultural background interact with the temperaments and backgrounds of his classmates and teachers. These interactions, which may be unrewarding for all, contribute to the discipline problem.

There are many ways in which the school can contribute to the discipline problems of children. Often conformity is demanded when insistence upon it can only be justified by habit. In this way a student's individual personality is bypassed for the sake of the teacher's psychological comfort. Teachers and parents may hold inappropriate expectations for the student's academic achievement and social behavior. When these standards are not met by the student, he receives the message that he is not adequate. The student may perceive no use in the instruction offered him, leaving him disinterested. In addition to these factors, teachers and classmates often knowingly reward a student's unsocial behaviors even when that attention takes the form of criticism (Kauffman, 1977).

Students in whom the discipline problem exhibits itself in aggressive behavior, and in whom the condition worsens, may ultimately become delinquent youths. Conduct disorders and delinquency are highly correlated with school failure (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1979). Realizing this correlation should make teachers aware of the need to carefully evaluate a discipline problem before attempting to "cure" it. Some children with discipline problems have learned inappropriate habits. These children may view themselves as unacceptable by others and rejected by them. Their own private worlds may have fallen short of extending to them the love and nourishment that children require. These social realities should be directly confronted when working with children with discipline problems (Hobbs, 1966).

Granting that children with discipline problems are not necessarily emotionally disturbed, it is interesting to speculate that many of the dynamics affecting interpersonal relationships between teachers and students with discipline problems, may be similar in nature to those between teachers and children with emotional problems. It would appear that teacher characteristics that facilitate learning for children who have emotional problems may be the same as those for children who are perceived as being discipline problems.

The following hierarchy of teacher competencies was developed by Hewett (1969) and roughly parallels a hierarchy of educational tasks for children with learning disorders which was earlier developed by the Neuropsychiatric Institute School at The University of California, Los Angeles (Hewett, 1964). One might note that it could be argued that these characteristics should be the hallmark of any good teacher.

Objectivity

The teacher must have developed an objective and questioning attitude toward teaching. The teacher should be able to objectively assess the pros and cons of a particular teaching method, and be able to communicate these findings to her colleagues.

Flexibility

The flexible teacher is capable of working in a state of change when necessary. The teacher realizes that certain instructional procedures which produce success one day, may result in failure on another. The teacher is competent at assessing individual student's progress, as well as their shortcomings, and is capable of accordingly adapting educational goals. Opportunity for the child to experience success is given great consideration. The teacher knows how to communicate acceptance of all students regardless of their differing personalities, intellectual achievement, or cultural backgrounds.

Structure

The teacher knows how to set reasonable limits for her students. This need not contradict the need for the teacher to be flexible. The students must be aware that there are certain behavioral codes which may not be broken, as for example, defining restrictions regarding space, noise, and the need to respect the rights of others. The student's assignments can also be structured, and the wise teacher provides feedback following a completed task which will give the student accurate information regarding his progress.

Resourcefulness

The teacher selects meaningful materials and activities which draw the students into realistic life situations, and which encourage an exploratory approach to the environment. Materials which have been designed to be rigidly followed in a time sequence are not used to replace activities which generate creativity and intrinsic student satisfaction.

Curriculum Expertise

Although knowledge of psychology is helpful, ultimately the teacher must be an expert in setting educational goals, and planning their attainment through wise selection of materials and activities. The teacher must be aware when certain remedial procedures will benefit certain students and make the appropriate referrals. After a student is receiving remedial training, the teacher must be receptive to closely working with the remedial teacher.

Intellectual Model

The teacher has every opportunity to influence the approaches students will demonstrate toward learning. The teacher who shows appreciation for intellectual pursuit and for the dignity of each individual, will become an effective and healthy model for the students who are fortunate enough to be assigned to her. Her interactions with students are in and of themselves a teaching method through which she demonstrates high regard

and respect for the individual, and thus increases the opportunities for the student with a discipline problem to learn alternate and acceptable behaviors.

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